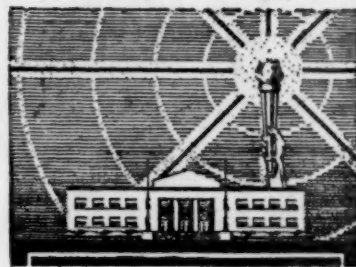


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VOLUME LI, NUMBER 4

APRIL, 1960

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As the Editor Sees It

How many secondary schools include in their social studies program a detailed and practical unit on the purpose and functioning of public education? We have no idea, except that we suspect the answer is too few. It is our feeling that this is a topic that needs much more treatment than it gets in most civics or social problems courses.

The subject of public education is one that is peculiarly close to all the people. They support it by taxes levied directly upon them. Ninety per cent of them rely upon it for the schooling of their children, after having received their own education from the same source. In many areas the question of the support of schools is put to public vote, the only form of taxation upon which the people have a direct voice. The people are constantly buffeted by statements of policy, philosophy and beliefs from educators, lay groups, professional journalists and others, many of whom express widely variant points-of-view. They join the P.T.A. and other school-oriented groups. And daily, if they have children in school, they receive immature and emotional reports on the quality of the schools and their personnel. All in all, it would be difficult to name another public institution or program in which citizens have as much direct concern and participation, and about which they have such definite and often misguided ideas.

There are probably very few Americans who really understand the purpose and philosophy upon which our national educational program is based. Most people can be easily confused by claims that the schools should do this or that, because they lack the broad comprehension of what our schools

are trying to do. Therefore they are unable to relate individual proposals to the total picture, and see whether they are consistent with it or not.

Again, a great many citizens are not sufficiently informed about the legal structure of public education in their states. They do not understand school law, and the regulations and procedures based on the law. If they have a vote on the school budget, they rarely have enough knowledge to discern a sound budget from an unsound one; they are likely to be swayed by minor details. Many a million-dollar school budget has been defeated because some citizen made a public issue of a thousand-dollar item.

We believe the schools should be controlled by the people they serve, not by a central bureaucracy. But this belief makes it imperative that the public know and understand the educational system. Too often, we believe, it is assumed that because everyone goes to school, everyone knows all about them. Nothing is further from the truth. Here is where the social studies program should do its part. No phase of government is closer to the people. We should teach about the schools in the schools. We should teach about the social importance of public education, its objectives, its legal basis, its structural organization and its financial aspects. Some of the larger areas of controversy—Federal aid, types of curriculum, etc.—should be studied. By teaching these things, we can hope that future voters will be better informed on the whole educational problem than are their parents. It is not enough merely to have citizens who *believe* in education; they must also *understand* it.

Interdisciplinary Research In Economics and Psychology

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In teaching the social studies, so great is the tendency to look at the content area in terms of familiar rubrics like "economics," "psychology," "sociology," etc., that we frequently tend to overlook those areas which are hybrid to two or more of the traditional disciplines. These hybrid areas often contain phenomena and problems which are more interesting and issues which are more lively than the traditional areas, themselves. The tendency to overlook such hybrid areas would not occur so readily if we were more accustomed to thinking in terms of problems rather than of subject matter. Eventually the day will come when these hybrid areas will produce such flow of research and such a flowering of viewpoints that we will cease to think of them as hybrid, for by then their intellectual progeny will be more numerous than those of their cognate parents. When such a stage is reached we shall bedeck them with a name and study them in their own right. Once this is done phenomena of major importance will no longer be overlooked, vistas of possible relationships will be spread before us, and so great will be the supply of problems for investigation that we shall not know which to take up first. That day, however, is still distant. In the meantime I should like to describe for the reader some of the territory which is common to two of these traditional areas, namely, psychology and economics. In this way the reader will be introduced to a varied but representative sample of the flora and fauna of a relatively unfamiliar interdisciplinary area and the manner in which parts of two traditional disciplines may be fused into something different from either.

Let us consider one of the more formal contributions to the hybrid area of *economic psychology*. Katona (4) has brought together into a single volume a large group of research materials in this field. He has systematically applied confirmed principles of psychology to the behavior of consumers, investors and businessmen and to such economic fluctuations as those of the traditional business cycle. By bringing together his own research efforts as Program Director of the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan and the scattered empirical investigations of a large number of other behavioral scientists, he has managed to demonstrate how we can obtain a better understanding of spending, saving and investing, if we make careful studies of the attitudes, motives and expectations of consumers and business men. In order to do this appropriately he has leaned heavily upon two different areas of modern psychology, namely, Gestalt and field psychology. The two basic psychological considerations which these branches of modern psychology involve for the explanation of economic behavior is first, that we should not expect to understand economic behavior unless we take into account what the psychologist calls *intervening variables*, which include all those factors between stimuli and responses, which can be called states of consciousness. The second consideration is that behavior involves the intellectual perception of the total context or field in which an individual finds himself, and that this perception is both highly subjective and highly variable. In economic behavior the first of these considerations would refer to the attitudes,

values and expectations of the consumer, business man or investor. The second of these considerations would refer to how the individual has organized his understanding of the economic relationships and forces which affect his life. The introduction of psychological analysis into attempts to explain economic behavior, leads to many new ways of viewing the latter. In the space of a brief paper like the present one, an extended examination of a large number of novel outlooks which result from this union would be beside the point. In order, however, to give the flavor of some of Katona's results, we shall deal with two of the many examples which he has furnished.

One of Katona's examples leads to the recognition of the incompleteness of an economic analysis and the uncertainty of economic predictions when we restrict economic analysis to a concern with the measurement of aggregates, or macroeconomics. Suppose for instance that there has been a rapid accumulation of liquid assets among consumers and that an economist wishes to predict whether or not this will promote an inflationary trend. He cannot do this solely on the basis of an index number which represents the percentage increase of liquid assets or even the figure which represents the actual, absolute increase of these assets. Instead he has to determine the answer to a series of questions. First, he must determine the distribution of liquid assets among low, moderate and high income groups. Next he must ascertain the economic expectations of the typical consumer in each of these three groups. Finally he must know which of these three types of consumer is eager to buy cars, refrigerators, radios, etc., and whether the representative consumer is in fact willing to spend liquid assets for these commodities or, being sensitive to the danger of depression, decides to put off buying, preferring to hold on to savings. In short only after we have tied together group holdings in assets to dominant group attitudes and motives, can we risk any type of prediction, whatsoever. Clearly economic attitudes and motives in this connection depend upon how

the consumer or investor organizes his understanding (perception) of the ongoing economic factors and forces which seem to be current.

A second example which Katona presents, makes use of what psychologists call rigidity of the perceptual field.¹ In the late 30's and early 40's, restaurants preserved a constant ratio between their total receipts and their total food costs. From 1940-1943 when restaurant prices were not subject to price controls this ratio was kept constant. Suppose a restaurant operated on a 40 per cent ratio. Then food which cost 40 cents went into a meal priced at \$1. By 1943 food prices had risen 50 per cent. The same food that was served in 1940 now bore a cost of 60 cents. The meal into which it entered was priced at \$1.50. Other expenses such as rent and cost of linen and china went up comparatively little while the volume of restaurant business went up sharply, so that even unchanged dollar margins would have brought about increased operating profits. However, interviews conducted with managers and owners of restaurants revealed that they had preserved the traditional ratio, not to increase total profits but because they had learned in the past that that was the right way to run a restaurant. The food-cost ratio was maintained unchanged because of the tendency to carry over from one situation to another certain principles well understood in the old context but without any realization that the unchanged application of the old principle meant something different under the new conditions. Needless to say Katona furnishes other examples in which rigidity of the perceptual field lowers rather than increases profits, as in the example just described. The reader will find it profitable to familiarize himself with the hundreds of other examples furnished by Katona, as part of the raw data of economic psychology.

It goes without saying that when the psychological roots of economic behavior are well understood, prediction and needed social control in the form of reeducation become more efficient. Katona's materials are based largely upon data drawn from an economy of scar-

city. It will be interesting to see in what ways psychological analysis will change when the psychologist has to deal with the opposite type of economy, the kind which Galbraith (3) has called the affluent society. Rigidities of the perceptual field should increase as psychological habits which developed in an economy of scarcity are carried over into an economy of abundance.

Another interesting example of a fusion of psychological and economic considerations comes from the work of Zipf. (7) The basic psychological principle invoked by Zipf is called the *Principle of Least Effort*. This principle asserts that a person who is trying to solve his current problems will view these against the background of his probable future problems *as estimated by himself*. Even more important he will have to solve these problems so as to minimize the *total work* that he must expend in solving both his current and his probable future problems. This is logically equivalent to saying that he will strive to minimize the *probable average rate of his work expenditure* over time. This will result in what Zipf calls *least effort*, that is to say, the individual will be minimizing his effort. In this sense least effort is a variant of least work. For Zipf any human action will be a manifestation of the Principle of Least Effort and therefore economic behavior will be subsumable under this principle. Zipf, in applying his principle, finds that all kinds of human behavior can be described by means of harmonic series drawn from mathematics. By combining the Principle of Least Effort with harmonic series analysis, Zipf is able to describe and predict the distribution of economic power and social status and he brings a great deal of analysis of empirical data to the task of confirming both his principle and to justifying his use of harmonic series analysis. Among the economic and social phenomena which Zipf makes an effort to explain are the following: (1) Competition among exploiters (the elite) for the goods and services of the exploited (the pariahs). (2) The relations between the elite and the pariahs. Among the phenomena of importance characterizing these relationships are the follow-

ing: the characteristics of the wage distribution of the pariahs, the manner in which personal damages are collected against an individual guilty of negligence as defined by a social code in the economy, the manner in which leadership is determined, the manner in which taxes can be levied upon a bureaucratic elite, the manner in which individual and group assets will come to be distributed and the manner in which perceptual and intellectual rigidity come to be established.

If the reader has the patience to read carefully through the technical presentations given by Zipf, which are, on the whole, both illuminating and interesting, the impression will be strongly reenforced that there are many economic phenomena which lend themselves to description and control in psychological and mathematical terms. What is even more important in Zipf's work is the small number of psychological principles involved and their relative simplicity. The task of pushing the principle of Least Effort into economic and social domains other than those already studied by Zipf, will remain a pioneer undertaking for some time to come. However, the pedagogical value of his work for indicating phenomena for which both psychology and economics are convergent, is beyond question.

An example of economic psychology to which we wish to turn, now, will involve a matter which may be somewhat familiar to the reader. Classical theories of economics depended heavily upon marginal utility analysis. We may think of the fundamental postulate of marginal utility in terms of Jevons' description of it. "We may state as a general law, that the *degree of utility varies with the quantity of the commodity, and ultimately decreases as that quantity increases*." Clearly the idea of utility is strictly psychological in nature and the question arises as to what efforts have been made by psychologists or economists to confirm it. The nearest psychological equivalent of the utility concept in economics is the Weber-Fechner Law in psychophysics, generally given as $S = k \log R$, where S is a measure of the intensity of a sensation, R a measure of the intensity of a

stimulus and k is a constant. One form in which utility can be investigated is in terms of what economists call indifference functions. These are curves along which the utility of a commodity or service is constant. Thurstone (6) made an early effort to test for the presence of the indifference function in human subjects but with somewhat controversial results. However, a more direct attack on the relevancy of marginal analysis to economic behavior, can be found in recent economic and psychological literature, particularly the literature dealing with consumer preferences. Benson (1) has done some outstanding work in this field. The general problem in this connection is to secure adequate measurements of consumer desire for different product forms and then set up a mathematical function which relates the degree of desire to the qualitative variable which create that desire. Having set up such a mathematical function, the point of maximum preference then, in terms of the calculus, involves the partial derivative and is known as the "marginal preference." Marginal utility analysis in economics has formulated equations for optimizing consumer utility from amounts of purchases made. In the traditional analysis of marginal utility it is assumed that the consumer spends his income among various goods offered in such a way as to maximize the utility which he experiences from the purchase of all the goods. In theory, amounts of the various goods are bought by the consumer up to the point where the increments in utility per dollar from each of the goods are equal, and the total expense for the goods equals the total income available to the consumer. If he can get more utility per added dollar from one good than another, he will buy more of the first and less of the second until the partial derivatives of the utility functions with respect to cost are equal.

Instead of measuring marginal utility the modern economist prefers to measure *marginal preference*. Unlike utility which refers to a vague feeling of satisfaction, preference as a psychological operation is both specific and scalable. Because scale theory is appli-

cable to this concept, marginal preference permits economists to proceed empirically whereas the use of the utility concept has been confined to theorizing about what would happen if utility were measurable.² Benson makes the following remarks in this connection.

"The extension of marginal utility analysis to optimizing product acceptability involves more than a redefined psychological concept. What is involved is the principle that the consumer not only buys quantities of products up to the point where the marginal preferences are equal but he also buys qualities of products up to the point where the partial derivatives of the preference-quality functions are equal. In the case where the cost of qualities is negligible, the optimum is found at the peak of the curve where the derivatives are zero. The qualities may be in separate products or within a single product. What is required is that qualities be defined and measured as well as preferences for qualities. In some cases qualities can be readily defined in physical terms such as size or weight. In other cases they refer to sensory experiences of color, taste, and touch, for which the physical variables are less closely related to consumer desire. In the interplay of physiology and fashion, the laboratory specifications of quality may be of less significance than what the consumer thinks are the qualities inherent in the product. It may be necessary to measure consumer experience of qualities by psychometric methods in order to reflect adequately what the consumer thinks are or what he thinks about the qualities in the product."

The great value of marginal preference analysis lies in its ability to permit research to determine optimum product acceptability. Using marginal preference analysis the Quartermaster Food and Container Institute has pioneered in investigating food preference functions among men in the Army. These food preference functions have been important in connection with menu planning and food processing. The same type of research can be done for clothing, housing, furnish-

ings, transportation, toiletries, and recreational goods and services, for people in various social, economic, regional and age groupings. On the whole, however, marginal preference analysis constitutes another prime example of the convergence of psychology and economics.

The final example which I wish to use here of an area in which psychology and economics have been blended, is in the field of research concerned with ascertaining the determinants of consumption in individuals. This area, of course, has been popularized by Vance Packard (5) in his book *The Hidden Persuaders*. In this volume Packard has marshalled evidence that psychoanalysis and depth psychology can create economic demand. The generic name for all psychological techniques which create wants is "motivation research." If one leaves aside the question of the morality of creating illusory wants and if one imagines the possibilities for putting motivation research to work to achieve economically benevolent ends, then the use of psychological means to achieve economic goals promises to have an impact whose importance is hardly foreseeable. Some of the economic activity which motivation research has been able to create thus far, is worth mentioning here.

First there is Dr. Dichter's famous study *Mistress versus Wife* in which the male consumer was persuaded to buy convertibles rather than sedans by introducing the hard-top convertible whose symbolic value to the male buyer was that it was supposed to suggest the lure of a mistress together with the solid fidelity and down-to-earth qualities of the plain girl he married, who became a good wife and mother. Then there is the depth study which put the cigar industry on its feet by discovering that cigars are virility symbols and that by smoking them, particularly in the presence of feminine advocates of gracious living, the male is defiantly reasserting his masculinity. Another intriguing study was the detection of the state of hypnosis in which the female shopper finds herself in the average supermarket. The state is induced by the packaged fairyland before her and it is detected by the subnormal eye-blink

rate which accompanies it. The researcher who discovered this also unearthed the startling fact that feminine resistance to the early cake mixes to which one had only to add water and bake, lay in the *fact* that "baking a cake traditionally is acting out the birth of a child" and that having to do nothing to get a cake is like being deprived of one's reproductive capacities and feminine status, and no proper lady wants a culinary pseudocyesis. The motivational researchers have also found that the most successful cereals for children are those with a built-in *crunch*. This appeases hostility by supplying an outlet for aggression and other feelings. It is unpleasant to have to report this but motivation researchers have also found that men's clothing styles are becoming feminized because of "creeping momism." Women buy their husbands' clothing to improve their "public images" and the current generation of momistically, other-oriented males actually want their wives to be mother-surrogates in this connection. Last but not least of the motivation research studies worth mentioning here is the discovery that automobiles are heavily laden with social meanings which "provide avenues for the expression . . . of the character, temperament and self concept of the owner and driver. . . . The buying process is an interaction between the personality of the car and the personality of the individual." People who want to seem sociable and up-to-date in a middle-of-the-road sort of way buy Chevrolets, Pontiacs, Buicks and Chryslers. People who want to be showy and assert their individualism and modernity purchase a Ford, Mercury, Oldsmobile or Lincoln. People who need to express unusual status or individual needs favor the Cadillac, Studebaker, Hudson, Nash and Willys.

The general conviction with which one is left after reading a volume like Packard's is that Pareto's emphasis on the non-logical basis of human conduct appears to have been sound. There is little in all of this to foster the economist's myth of a rational man employing the felicific calculus in order to achieve intelligent economic objectives.

Finally, in this same connection, let us note

the recent publicity regarding the phenomenon psychologists have begun to call *subliminal stimulation*. This latter phrase refers to the process of flashing advertising upon a television or movie screen at so rapid a flicker rate that the material thrown on the screen is below the threshold of conscious attention. However, the same material is noticed unconsciously and, in many cases, individuals respond to it. Thus in the first account the public received concerning subliminal stimulation, this technique was said to have increased popcorn sales in a theatre lobby. Whether such techniques are put to good or bad, trivial or important, social and economic use, will be determined by both business and the public in the years to come.

The few examples which we have so briefly discussed here constitute only a small sample of the many areas in the social studies in which economics and psychology converge in one way or another, but they are representative. Educators in the social studies could, I believe, perform a valuable service of recognition of this convergence in the field of curriculum development. Theirs is a minimum responsibility to reflect convergences of this

sort in traditional course material or, if need be, in the experimental introduction of new, hybrid, social disciplines into the changing curriculum.

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¹ The example given in the text is of great interest to the present writer because his own experience with the Office of Price Administration completely confirms the relevance of the example in question.

² In justice to utility analysis it should be pointed out that successful models for studying the economic utility function psychologically have been developed by Davidson, Suppes and Siegel (2). These tend to be complicated involving subtle considerations of probability theory and linear programming.

Southeast Asia—Crossroads of the East

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Due to their strategic geographical position which controls water passage between the Indian and Pacific Oceans, the land and island areas of Southeast Asia have played important historical roles in the economic and political relations of Asians with fellow Asians and with the peoples of the West.

Because of its crossroads position, South-

east Asia has been continually exposed to external influences. It has been a melting-pot of Asian cultures, civilizations and ethnic groups; its history is a story of successive waves of cultural and commercial influences, each destroying the old to some extent and each fusing with the old to produce a richer cultural hybrid.

Each change has presented a challenge to the peoples of Southeast Asia because they have had to adjust to new rulers and governments and to learn anew to live in their world. Such a period exists in our mid-20th century world because most of the independent coun-

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tries and peoples of the area, save Thailand, have emerged as free nations since the end of World War II. One by one, the peoples of Southeast Asia have struggled on the battlefield and at the diplomatic table for independence from former colonial powers in the area: France, Great Britain, and The Netherlands. The psychological and sociological attitudes inherent in independence and responsibility for self-government have placed great burdens on the political and educational leaders of Southeast Asian countries.

Most of us in the United States, with the exception of American missionaries, have traditionally thought of this area of the world in terms of a vast jungle wilderness, inhabited by backward peoples and only of interest to us because of its raw materials of rubber, tin, oil and spices, plus its strategic importance in a colonial-minded world.

Colonialism is gone from Southeast Asia and in its stead we find new nations, none much more than a decade old. Few were adequately prepared for independence and responsibility. Added to the havoc of revolution and the remnants of colonialism, illiteracy, poverty, sub-standard health conditions and economic unbalance make the workings of democracy difficult.

Upon such foods of unrest feast Communism and general discontent with struggling new governments. In addition, to the North rise the might and threat of Communist China as posed against what appear to be indecision and lack of understanding in the United States.

For the peoples of Southeast Asia, there is a real and dangerously close geographical dilemma which manifests itself in the growth of Communist China politically and economically. The available evidence indicates that an Asian nation can rise to a position of international importance without the political sanction and economic support of the United States and its Western allies.

Despite the defeat of Japan during World War II, the concept of "Asia for the Asians," as developed by the Japanese, has not disappeared from the minds of many Asians. The so-called neutral nations of Southeast Asia,

while not sympathetic to the aims and promises of Communism, do have a certain pride in the development and accomplishments of a sister Asian nation.

Traditionally, the United States has had a reputable record in Southeast Asia, especially so in the Philippines and Thailand. Until quite recently, we have not found a deep-seated hostility towards us by Asian peoples. Unfortunately, the current trend in attitudes has been engendered by a lack of information and a lack of interest other than political, and by our quasi-European approach to the problems and aspirations of Southeast Asians.

Through the efforts of technical assistance programs of the American Government, the United Nations and the Colombo Plan, much has been done to improve the general welfare and economic life of the peoples of Southeast Asia.

In recent years, Asian educators, civil servants, and technicians have been provided opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills abroad and foreign educators and technicians have been sent to participating nations with generally good results. Nevertheless, only beginnings have been made in an area where illiteracy, poor food habits, unsanitary conditions and antiquated agricultural practices have been allowed to continue for centuries by colonial powers.

While the results of aid programs in Southeast Asia have been beneficial, much remains to be done on the educational level in the United States, both with the adult and school populations, in order to have more understanding and knowledge of this area of the world.

Our young people, in the public schools, colleges and universities, need to know more about the history, cultures, religions and languages of Southeast Asia. Were this the pattern twenty years ago, our diplomatic representatives in the countries of Southeast Asia might have a more sympathetic understanding of the past, present and future of this area.

Unfortunately, too many of our secondary school and university history texts tend to give only cursory treatment to the history of

Southeast Asia. History is being made in Asia today that is of the greatest importance to the United States in its role as leader of the so-called Free World. Our people cannot remain uninformed and indifferent about events in Cambodia, Free China, Laos, Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam. We must be well informed, and being so, we stand an excellent chance of being understood ourselves.

The great Indian Ghandi has influenced the thinking of millions of Southeast Asians; yet he is comparatively unknown to many of our young people and adults. While the United States is mainly a Christian nation, too few of our students are informed of the great religions of Asia: Buddhism, Hinduism, and Islam. Must we not provide our students increased opportunities for learning as many important facets of Southeast Asian life and thought as possible?

Today, and more so in the future, the countries of Southeast Asia are playing greater roles in the political and economic sphere of the international community. Our secondary schools, colleges and universities must furnish increased opportunities for students to know the history, cultures and languages of Southeast Asia.

One day it may be too late to remedy our present lack of knowledge about Southeast Asia. While there is time, and opportunities are available for the exchange of information, scholars, teachers and technicians, it behooves us to improve our lines of communication and understanding on a mutual basis. By doing so, Southeast Asia — Crossroads of the East — will be open to the international community and its people will be able to continue to contribute to the cultural, economic, political and social welfare of our world.

The National Conventions: An American Phenomenon

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H. L. Mencken once described the presidential nominating conventions as "an extra legal proceeding with no mention in the Constitution and very little notice given it in Federal or state statutes." With customary bombast Mencken went on to deride the national convention as being "free to change its rules at will, expel one delegate, seat another, increase or diminish a state's representation and accept credentials of delegates from Turkestan or the moon for that matter." What baffled the Baltimore sage most, however, was the fact that the convention system had been in operation for over a century and had, for the most part, worked amazingly well.

Since its inception in 1831, as a result of the Jacksonian victory over the closed party caucus, the national convention has never failed to provide a flamboyant panorama of our political system in action. If it has proven a source of wonderment to Mencken and other seasoned reporters of the American scene, one can well imagine the utter bewilderment of the foreign observer. One such observer, Moisei Ostrogorski, famed European political scientist of the 19th Century, attended both national conventions in 1888, and gave the following impression of what he had witnessed:

In a fit of intoxication the delegates yield to the most sudden impulses, dart in the

most unexpected directions and blind chance has the last word. . . . The name of the candidate for the presidency of the Republic issues from the convention delegates like numbers from a lottery. . . . A greedy crowd of officeholders, or office seekers disguised as delegates of the people, indulged in, or were victims of, intrigues and maneuvers, the objective of which was the chief magistracy of the greatest republic in two hemispheres. . . . Yet, when you carry your thoughts back from the scene which you have just witnessed and review the line of Presidents, you find that if they have not all been great men, they were at least all honorable; and you cannot help repeating the American adage: "God takes care of drunkards, little children and the United States."

To play up the ludicrous aspects of the convention has always been tempting, but oft-times misleading. Critics of the convention system have been especially quick to attack what they view as disgraceful antics, unworthy of the serious business of selecting a candidate to the highest office in the land. All too often, however, these critics have lost sight of the fact that no other country enables its citizenry to participate in the nominating process in such numbers. Candidates for public office in all other democratic countries — including Great Britain where party conditions most resemble our own — are selected solely by local or national party leaders. In providing for participation on so broad a scale in national nominations, the American convention system defies comparison.

Another favorite criticism of the national convention has been to denounce it as a sham battle, a facade to conceal the sinister manipulation of delegates by political "bosses" who meet in smoke-filled rooms far from the din, tumult and confusion of the convention floor. This clandestine view of the nominating convention is hard to reconcile with the facts of past history. Cleveland, Bryan, Theodore Roosevelt, Wilson and Eisenhower were nominated despite large scale opposition from the "boss" elements of their respective parties; and it is interesting to note that four

of these five candidates went on to win the presidential elections by large pluralities. Conversely, it has been the experience of both major parties that candidates, nominated solely on their strength with the party bosses, have usually done quite poorly at the polls. The fate of James G. Blaine in 1884, Alton B. Parker in 1904 and William Howard Taft in 1912 are but a few cases in point.

Even the classic example of Warren G. Harding's nomination in 1920 cannot be completely explained in terms of a "boss"-controlled convention. It is very unlikely that Harry Daugherty and other party bosses would have been so successful in dictating Harding's nomination from a smoke-filled room in Chicago's Blackstone Hotel had not the delegates supporting Governor Frank Lowden and General Leonard Wood become hopelessly deadlocked on the convention floor. And much of the "boss" support attributed to Al Smith in 1928 and Franklin D. Roosevelt four years later was forthcoming only after both men had displayed much grass roots strength.

If the power of the party boss to manipulate national conventions has been greatly exaggerated, what, then, are some of the more pertinent factors determining the nomination of a presidential candidate? Without question an incumbent president is in the most advantageous position to capture his party's nomination if he chooses to run again. Only the most dismal failure in office would be denied this traditional privilege. In national conventions where an incumbent president has sought renomination, it has generally been a foregone conclusion that he would get it. Jim Farley's futile attempt to head off Roosevelt's bid for an unprecedented third term nomination in the Democratic Convention of 1940 exemplifies the almost irrevocable working of this principle.

Another factor that must be taken into consideration in the selection of a nominee is his showing in the presidential primaries. Despite all that has been said and written about the gap between victory in the primaries and actually receiving the nomination, primaries do enable a potential candidate to

place his name before the convention for consideration. No candidate who displays exceptional strength in primaries throughout the country — and especially in pivotal states — can afford to be ignored by the convention. The failure of the Republican Convention of 1912 to seat delegates representing the primary vote of Theodore Roosevelt resulted in a party split of such magnitude that the comparatively little known college professor, Woodrow Wilson, won the ensuing election on the Democratic ticket.

Once a national convention has gotten under way, anything might happen and often does. Banners unfurl, bands blare out indiscriminately and suddenly the aisles of the convention hall become jammed with wildly cheering delegates. Soon visitors in the galleries, as well as the delegates on the floor, are swept up in the contagious enthusiasm that pervades the convention hall. It is in just such an atmosphere that skilled orators have been known to enthrall enough delegates to seize the nomination in one fell swoop. William Jennings Bryan's immortal "Cross of Gold" speech, delivered during the Democratic Convention of 1896, not only won for him the nomination, but made him the party's leader for many years afterward. More recently, the ringing keynote address of the late Alben Barkley in the Democratic Convention of 1948 received an ovation and demonstration that insured him of the Vice Presidential nomination even before Truman had approved him as a running-mate. When viewed in this light of past history, Eisenhower supporters at the '52 Republican Convention had every reason to fear that General Douglas MacArthur's keynote speech might possibly stampede the convention to Senator Taft or even to himself.

Undoubtedly the worst fate that can ever befall a convention is to have it become deadlocked over the choice of a candidate or a platform. The Democratic Convention of 1924 was unique in that it became deadlocked over both, and was forced to stay in session until a record 103 ballots had been cast. The deadlock began in the platform committee when a motion was made denouncing the Ku Klux

Klan. Embittered by the heated debate over this issue, the delegates supporting the two strongest candidates, William McAdoo and New York's Governor Al Smith, fought each other to a standstill on the convention floor. For over two weeks the balloting continued in the midst of a sweltering heat wave that had settled over New York City. Sheer exhaustion and mounting hotel bills eventually forced the nomination of a compromise ("darkhorse") candidate, John W. Davis. So disunited were the Democrats after the convention that Davis was badly defeated at the polls even though the Republican vote was split by the third party candidacy of Wisconsin's "Fighting Bob" LaFollette.

The fate of the Democrats in 1924 reveals the costly price a party must pay for failing to reconcile a deadlocked convention. Yet some of the harshest criticism leveled at the convention has been related to compromise, especially in the formulation of a platform. Competent observers, foreign and domestic alike, have spoken in the same tones of disparagement on the subject. In his voluminous study of the American political system, Lord Bryce has written: "It (the platform) is generally a trite mixture of denunciation, declaration and conciliation." A similar view has been expressed editorially by *The New York Times*: "Ordinarily the framing of the platform is a joke or a nuisance. As a rule it is a composite of conflicting views, artfully put together to deceive the voter."

Neither of these criticisms makes allowance for the peculiar nature of our party system. Only because our major political parties cut sharply across American life has this country avoided the confusion, strife and chaos that have plagued those nations where every narrow and provincial interest is represented by its own party. But the extraordinary divergence of social, economic and sectional influences found within each of our major parties is by no means an unmixed blessing. The disparity of views held by the extreme factions within both parties must be constantly reconciled. To harmonize these almost irreconcilable factions and find some middle ground for action is the herculean task

bequeathed to the platform committee of every national convention. In the past when conventions have failed to compromise highly controversial planks in the platform—a prime example is the slavery question in the Democratic Platform of 1860—the results have sometimes been disastrous not only for the party concerned but also for the entire nation.

For all the criticism that has been leveled against the national convention as a political institution, not since the turn of the century has any modification or alternative been seriously considered that might appreciably change the presidential nominating process. The enthusiasm created by the direct primary in the early 1900's reached its zenith in 1913, when President Wilson proposed to replace the convention system with a national presidential primary. Congress flatly rejected Wilson's scheme, and the great expectations once

held for presidential primaries waned rapidly. Today about eighteen states have primary laws in one form or another, but in only a handful of these do primary results actually bind convention delegates.

In 1952, television added a new dimension to the national conventions that cannot as yet be fully assessed. It has become an open secret that some political "pros" bitterly resent television's penetrating scrutiny of behind-the-scenes maneuverings that were formerly reserved for the eyes and ears of convention delegates only. Whether or not efforts will be forthcoming to curb TV's free-wielding convention coverage is anyone's guess. One thing, however, seems quite certain: once having had a glimpse into the inner-workings of the convention system, the viewing public is not now likely to accept arbitrary restrictions on proceedings in which they have expressed so vital an interest.

Mercator vs. Polar Projection: World of Difference

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What was to be resolved by a telephone call almost resulted in an odyssey. Even though the incident had a happy ending, it caused the writer to reflect on what at first sight appears to be a triviality. A short time ago I wanted to order a supply of North Polar projections as frames of reference for my lecture on geopolitics and American foreign policy.

I called a half dozen map publishers and retailers to no avail and walked the sidewalks of New York until finally I found the McKinley North Polar Projection (No. 97A). Logically, you might say, I should have dropped the matter there. Why all the fuss about a projection?

Before I answer, let me fill in with a few more animadversions about the availability of this projection. For a long time I have noticed that when maps are advertised or when they are given away free as part of a sale promotion, invariably the blurb boasts that the map is a Mercator map. During my odyssey when I checked cartographic catalogs, though my check was not exhaustive, I found only two companies which published a desk-size Polar projection. Of the two, the price of one company could not be regarded as cheap. One may, then, surmise not only that the general public is oblivious to the Polar projection but in educational circles, likewise,

there is no demand for it. A sad, very sad state of affairs indeed! In fact, through advertising, the prestige of the Mercator is still being enhanced.

Once again, why all the fuss about projections? The Mercator for hundreds of years has been a basic chart for sea navigation. It still is. Plot a voyage from New York to London and this map is the means for setting the course. Furthermore, trace a trip from London to Hong Kong through the Suez Canal and this map gives the geopolitical rationals for the development of the British Empire. (And when we note the location of the Prime Meridian at Greenwich, here, too, there is implicit a world of values which made much sense geopolitically in an age of *seapower*.)

On the other hand, plot a trans-Polar flight from San Francisco to Moscow or the voyage of the Nautilus under the Polar ice cap. On the Mercator, in the former case, it would appear that the shortest route is east-northeastward—(away from the Far East, incidentally). Even in the latter journey the main directional component is easterly, and it seems many thousands of miles longer than the Nautilus actually traveled under the Arctic ice cap.

When we check the Great Circle routes for both trips on the globe, we find that the shortest distance is north over the Pole and then due south to destination. Of course, the North Polar projection reveals the same course!

Still is that sufficient reason to abandon the map of our fathers? There is so much psychological comfort in looking at the Mercator. It makes the world look *and feel* so sensible. But it makes sense because it is familiar; not vice versa. In the twentieth century, in the air age world, the perspective that is the concomitant of the Mercator is comparable to that during the age of Columbus which viewed the earth as a flat surface.

Projection and *perspective* are two different things. The latter is the matrix of the former. It is in order to give the best cartographic expression to one or more of man's contemporary (historical) relationships with

his earthly environment that the map-maker invents a projection. In turn, it is the teacher's duty to explain the perspective behind the projection.

Bertrand Russell, in his *ABC's of Relativity*, maintains that, as children are born into the world of Einsteinian Relativity, they will accept such an orientation as natural. The same should be said of those born into the air age world. Their thinking should be founded on a Polar-type projection. *But* it cannot unless they see it and use it.

Actually, this projection simplifies the teacher's task. It should and must become one of the Social Studies teacher's best friends. The North Polar map explains to his students the routes of our air and future underwater travel; it provides the backdrop and rationale for the United States' foreign policy—the goals, problems and possibilities. To the skeptical, it removes any doubt that our country is *in* the world to stay—not only in the North Atlantic Community but in the trans-Polar Community as well. In a word, the map stresses human interdependence. It compels us to hasten our awareness of the relationships, attitudes and broad understandings required for a technologically advanced age.

And if Tawney is correct that the peninsula of Europe is likely to play a role politically and economically as insignificant as is its size and location, it is well that we look to the north and the future. Possibly the use of atomic air transportation that is inexpensive and at greatly increased speed may nullify any Chinese pressure toward the north into empty Siberia, but the map offers reasons for such thoughts on the part of the Chinese and fears on the part of the Russians. It also poses the problems of Latin America, Africa, Australia and India all so far from the new crossroads of the world. And of course, the map explains Alaska's strategic position.

What is more, despite the novelty of the Polar projection to the student, it can be used on most educational levels. The writer first used it with an eighth grade current events class. The students thereafter clearly understood the objectives of our foreign policy and

the 'whys' of our international economic aid program as they could not without the perspective this projection provided. More recently he used, as he indicated earlier, both the Mercator and the Polar projections with a graduate group to point up the obsolescence of the former and the relevance of the latter in terms of the present and the future. This group saw clearly that the two maps provided two radically different outlooks. They

began to see that we cannot picture in our minds a Mercator map and function intelligently in a Polar world.

It is to be hoped that Social Studies teachers throughout the nation—and map publishers, too—will make a concerted effort to give American youth and their parents what Leonard S. Kenworthy, in his *Introducing Children to the World*, calls "a cockpit, not a porthole" view of the world.

Two Major Problems in the Teaching of the Social Studies

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"What problems confront you in the teaching of the Social Studies" was the title of a recent in-service workshop for the six hundred elementary teachers of a school district in an eastern state. The teachers formed small heterogeneous discussion groups which were vital, alive, stimulating, and most fruitful. Although the problems submitted and discussed were variable in complexion and contour and the solutions presented were as individual as each of the 600 teachers involved, the reports submitted by each group chairman could easily be catalogued into two distinct categories. One group of problems, in the teaching of the social studies in the elementary school, centered about the administration. The second group centered about the classroom teacher herself. Evaluating and analyzing this list of problems indicate how deep is the lag between theory and practice in the teaching of the social studies. The problems indicated by the teachers of this particular school district can be duplicated in hundreds of other districts.

1. The problem which loomed largest and most distinct was the lack of sympathy and

understanding toward the social studies as displayed by the school administration. By administration was meant the superintendent of the school system and the principal of the elementary school. In some cases even the supervisor was included in this category of non-sympathy and non-understanding.

The administration, generally, did not desire children to be active and moving freely about the classroom. It disliked the noise of children working in groups, talking amongst themselves, each group on an individual project, working with materials and objects. The classroom, to the administration, was then cluttered and untidy. The children were wasting a great deal of time in bringing materials together at the beginning of the social studies period and then replacing them in their proper location at the conclusion of the lesson. The children were not learning; they were only playing. They were not assimilating the facts and skills necessary to secure high achievement test scores. Such free group work and manipulation of materials might be suitable for the kindergarten and the first grades but certainly not for the fourth, fifth

and sixth grades. The administrator considered that teacher successful who kept a quiet room, whose children, noiseless, sat in regulated rows, busily reading, writing or listening.

Since the administrator, in the main, had selected and caused to be purchased the history, or geography, or social studies text, he expected it to be used; and by "used," he meant the book to be read and known from cover to cover. The teachers reported the same attitude of the administration towards the use of the workbook. It was to be used by all the children. Thus when an administrator visited the classroom of a teacher during the social studies period, he or she expected to find children reading the textbook, or discussing the reading of same with their teacher or writing out summaries or notes from the text or filling in required answers from the workbooks. An occasional use of the encyclopedia or newspaper might be permitted, but generally the steady diet was to be the textbook.

The teachers reported that generally the materials available in the schools for use in the social studies were inadequate, unsuitable and generally out of date. No one had available for use a geographic relief globe or a rubber relief map puzzle of the United States or a washable slate globe. Most teachers reported that their wall maps and globes were colorless and out of date. Some seventy-three teachers reported that their wall maps were dated pre-war. Teachers did not have such resources as a weekly newspaper, "The Young Citizen," "Junior Review," unless they requested each child to contribute the subscription rate for the paper from funds secured from home. Some three hundred and seven teachers had collected, on their own initiative and at their own expense, large quantities of free and inexpensive materials. But few had any of the excellent inexpensive books suggested for use in the social studies by the American Library Association, or by the Association of Childhood Education (to be purchased for 85¢ or less). Teachers found it difficult to secure those film strips kept in the central office of the school system. Such required a great deal of energy and time to

secure. Many of the film strips were very much out of date and one group of teachers claimed their film strip projector had been out of repair since the spring. Films for the social studies were even more difficult to secure than were the film strips, and those that were procured were of little value in explaining a modern concept or attitude. The children laughed at the ancient models of autos, the old fashioned apparel of the participants.

Few teachers had such social studies resources as radio, players, recorders, slide viewers or even an inexpensively procurable view master. Perhaps the administrator had underlying reasons for non-approval of the use of modern methods and techniques in the teaching of the social studies. Such methods and techniques require equipment, materials and supplies which cost money.

Finally, the teachers reported, the administration does not allow the classroom teacher to have sufficient time in the class schedule to develop a suitable social studies program. Much more time is given to the individual subject areas of arithmetic, reading and spelling than to the social studies. One group of teachers indicated that their principal believed the social studies was of secondary importance on the class schedule and, like music and art, was a frill subject. Thus, the social studies had a place on the time table at the end of the school day on Mondays, Wednesdays and Fridays. The six hundred elementary school teachers reported the social studies is an afternoon subject, given after the mid-afternoon recess, thus reflecting the attitude of the administration that the social studies is in the category of a "recreational" subject.

The administration of this particular school system seemed to indicate, from the opinions reflected by its teachers, that the social studies is of secondary importance. There seemed to be no evaluation of the social studies program and thus no effort was made for a continuing program of the social studies through the grades. The administration was interested, the teachers explained, in sound scholastic results in reading, arithmetic and spelling. It was interested in ex-

pending energy and money on the purchase of materials and equipment devoted to the teaching of science and the expansion of the sports program. In comparison, little or no effort was expended on the teaching of the social studies. The teachers gave, as the reason for this disparity, the fact that a sound program in science and physical education, at the moment at least, is the basis for profitable and concrete public relations. What administrator, today, would receive promotion for the depth, breadth, imagination and richness of his school's social studies program?

2. The second overall weakness of the social studies as explained by some six hundred teachers of a particular school system was their own inadequacy, impotency and basic ignorance of what was expected from the social studies in objectives and purpose, in content and organization, in evaluation and results. One hundred and eighty-three teachers expressed a fear, verging on dislike, of the teaching of the social studies. They felt it was too complicated and broad in scope for them to handle efficiently. They felt so much safer and more secure teaching with and from a textbook. These teachers believed they accomplished satisfactory results in the teaching of spelling and arithmetic but the "modern approach" to the social studies confused them.

Two hundred and seven teachers explained that they had difficulty in teaching a continuing, complete unit in the social studies. Fifty-five teachers taught history and geography as separate entities, fearing that if these separate subjects were united, one would subsume the other. Some three hundred and eighty teachers made no effort to integrate the language arts, science, music, art or physical education with the social studies.

But more devastating was the indication that too many teachers (seventy-three) had no semblance whatsoever of a unit in their social studies. While teaching the rivers of Canada, they were also teaching the Pilgrim fathers. The program on free reading and oral discussion concerned cowboys. The art

lesson was on perspective and the physical education program was building pyramids. Basically, these teachers did not understand the underlying philosophy and purpose of a unit in the social studies—how to build a unit, let alone how to proceed with it once organized, was a strange and foreign process to them. Perhaps it would be useless to give such teachers modern social studies equipment and materials which they could not use efficiently and well. Perhaps the opinion of their principal that money spent on social studies equipment and material was wasted, essentially would be true.

Teachers reported difficulty in setting up and organizing a problem—other than assigning the children reading in and answering questions from the textbook—in the social studies. How to set up a problem through pupil participation, which would be based on child interest and need, was a great puzzle to some teachers. Thus, in the classrooms of three hundred and twenty-eight teachers there was no problem solving in the social studies as such, and thus, little creative thinking. These teachers did not understand creative thinking, its definition, its implication or how it might be developed through the social studies. Creative thinking, to such teachers, meant original art work, or the composing of a poem. That creative thinking could be fostered in the social studies media, through the children, guided by the teacher setting up problems to be solved, was foreign to them. That a problem such as "why is there anti-Americanism in Latin America?" where the children seek materials to secure answers, and use their own creative thinking in organizing and expressing the answers, was possible in the social studies, confused too many teachers. These teachers did not understand how to operate the social studies so that children could, on their own initiative, be original and make new discoveries.

A large number of teachers (almost four hundred) were ignorant of how to adapt the social studies problem to each child's interest and ability. Here was aptly demonstrated a common complaint in the teaching of the

social studies. The teachers knew the words but couldn't put the words into action. They knew that their responsibility was to meet the child's individual interest and need, but how to operate and accomplish this philosophy was as foreign to them as the Russian tongue. That one child, more keenly interested and able in the mechanical, could be responsible for building a primitive water steam engine and be able to learn, at the same time, history, geography and civics, while a second child, interested in music, could collect or compose songs similar to "Puffing Billy" or "She'll be Comin' Round the Mountain" and learn the same geography, history and civics, was incomprehensible to these teachers.

Too, the mechanics of organizing a classroom of 30 or 40 children into such individual interests and needs during the social studies period meant to most teachers a capitulation to disorder and chaos. As one teacher verbally expressed it, "I just haven't enough time to start and oversee so many different activities. It's bad enough to see that they all do a products map of the western states correctly." These teachers did not see that once the problem had been identified and defined, the child's own initiative, ability and creative thinking carries him forward. They did not see that the teacher's knowledge and energy, as stimulation to the solving of a problem, is secondary to that of the child's.

One hundred and five teachers were concerned with the problem of how one can be sure an activity or work project is profitable and suitable—that such is not a waste of time and energy, (of which far too much is wasted in the school day as it is). These teachers did not realize that if the activity is correlated to an objective of the unit, if the activity explains and broadens, emphasizes and enlarges on the objective, then the activity has not wasted time nor been useless to learning. It was difficult for such teachers to understand that such activities primarily reinforce learning, supplement and deepen it. Suppose an objective decided upon for a unit on Canada is an understanding of Canada's great water resources. Suppose one group of

children decides, as its activity, to build on the sand table a model of the St. Lawrence Waterway. The children might correspond with the proper informational bureau of the Canadian Government and the St. Lawrence Seaway Commission to secure source materials. They might consult issues of *Life* magazine, topographical maps and charts to construct an adequate, but perhaps somewhat inaccurate model of the St. Lawrence Seaway. Such an activity is suitable and profitable and has satisfied that objective of the unit. But if the children spend most of their time and energy constructing a salt and flour map of the Dominion of Canada, emphasizing the rivers of that northern nation, which have been traced directly from a map in the text, then in all probability, that activity certainly has not been suitable or profitable. Too much time has been spent on the mixing of flour and salt, the preparation of the cardboard base, the painting and shellacking of the hardened paste. Not enough time was spent on research—searching for materials, then sifting and sorting those materials for that information which is needed and then adapting that information for solving the problem in hand. Too few teachers see the activity as an expression and enlargement of an objective. Too many see the activity as simple busy work.

A vast number of teachers (five hundred and seventeen) confessed their ignorance and difficulty in forming and organizing groups in the classroom. Should the group be organized on interest level, by ability or need, by sex or social preference, or by family grouping (a combination of all these attributes)? Does a teacher ask for volunteers in a group or assign members arbitrarily? How did one avoid cliques—several trouble makers getting into the same group? How did one make certain there would be a leader in the group—an able person to carry the group forward?

And then once the group was formulated, how did one stimulate it to function? How did one determine a suitable problem for a particular group? How did the group proceed to allocate jobs, responsibilities? How was one to know if a group was off on a wrong

tangent, wasting time, accomplishing nothing? How did a teacher distribute different materials to different groups efficiently? How did she make certain she wasn't questioned to death? And once the groups settled down to work, how did she keep them together — how did she make sure one group hadn't completed their problem days or weeks before the others? How does one teach a class of children to work and function in groups? How do you strengthen their weaknesses in group work, their failings in group responsibility?

It would be madness for an efficient administrator to encourage such teachers to use more modern methods in the teaching of the social studies until they more clearly understood the function and workings of the group process.

CONCLUSION

There would seem to be two main conclusions drawn from the difficulties of the teaching of the social studies as expressed and indicated by some six hundred elementary school teachers of a particular school system.

A. There is a great lag in the professional requirements of administrators. Too many are not aware of the scientifically proven and accepted educational practices in the social studies. Too many administrators still receive their appointments because they were successful football coaches, or because as classroom teachers they kept good classroom control or the children made high scores on the achievement tests. Too few administrators are aware of the larger problems in the teaching of the social studies other than ordering the correct number of prescribed texts and workbooks. Certainly a broader vision, a more idealistic viewpoint, a more courageous and informed stand on the social studies is needed by many administrators. Too many administrators emphasize the community's reaction to curriculum innovations, to higher budgets for materials and equipment. Too few act on the knowledge of what is the best possible educational program the children of this community should have, then plan, move, sell and act for that program.

B. But teachers themselves need to be less talked at, in fine words and phrases, on what they should do and how they should do it in the social studies. They need less emphasis on theory and philosophy and more on demonstration and actual participation in social studies methods and techniques. This should be done not only at in-service workshops and orientation programs and institutes, but most definitely at the institutions which prepare teachers. One young teacher, freshly graduated from a teachers college, confessed that she had "read and heard about all these methods and procedures in the social studies, but never once had she seen them in operation." A wise supervisor at an in-service workshop might demonstrate with a class of children how social studies problems are set up, how groups are initiated, how activities are organized. If a group of children are not available, a group of teachers might serve as demonstration material. Teachers are no different than children. They learn more quickly and easily when the material is on the concrete, when it is within the range of their own experience and meets their immediate needs and interests. Talking about social studies methods is necessary, but is useless if not followed by action, by demonstration, by behavior. Too many of our teachers haven't passed the talking stage.

The problems and difficulties in the teaching of the social studies as here indicated may not be those prevalent in every elementary school classroom. But there are sufficient similarities to the basic problems in the teaching of the social studies found in most school systems to be of concern to supervisors of the social studies, elementary school principals, and administrators. It is all very well for school people to be vitally concerned over the teaching of mathematics, science and the foreign languages. But it is not primarily from these areas that the present world difficulties arise. It is equally as important to exert an objective effort in the improvement of that most necessary area of the curriculum, the social studies, if the child, as an adult citizen is to be aware of social difficulties caused by friction and misunderstanding.

"New Viewpoints" and the Paperback

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Each month seems to bring a new report of the striking impact of the paperback book revolution in America. It has already worked profound changes in the reading habits of millions of persons throughout the United States, and has noticeably affected the pedagogical methods of many college professors and some high school teachers too. Apparently starved for years for good books in cheap editions, Americans have seized upon the paperback with unprecedented and unpredicted interest.

Not to be ignored in the rush for high level, readily available, printed matter are the adult education courses, flourishing and popular in many communities throughout the nation.

In the past, most of the so-called cultural or intellectual adult programs — to differentiate them from the classes in sewing, photography or milk glass collecting — have had to rely upon two principal sources for reading material. Programs such as the "Great Books" have always had relatively inexpensive hard-bound editions of the classics from which to draw. Since their demand for titles was relatively limited, they did not suffer from the lack of an extensive library of truly low cost books. Other programs, such as "World Politics," sponsored by the American Foundation For Political Education, found it necessary to publish their own readings, a financial effort that could never have been undertaken without Ford Foundation backing.

The shortcomings of these two situations are obvious. Either an adult course is placed in the shackles of conformity to what the publisher considers a standard work or a "classic" — and hence a permanently saleable item — or the course becomes the master and not the servant, and its organizers, beginning

with a high initial overhead for publishing, become immersed in cost charts and economically feasible leader-participant ratios, and are insufficiently concerned with the educational function which they are attempting to perform.

That serious adult education programs are needed in this country is not in the least subject to doubt. That such programs will be offered on a vastly increased basis over the next ten years is similarly unquestionable. The real problems are what such courses will offer, who will organize them, and what they will cost.

There is a fairly common aphorism within some academic circles that in the fifty years from 1850 to 1900, America learned to produce; in the fifty years from 1900 to 1950, America learned to distribute; in the fifty years from 1950 to 2000, America must learn to consume. The suggestion is intrinsic that the next American revolution is to be neither political nor industrial but cultural. The coming thirty-five hour work week, the gradual increase in the proportion of the population with a college degree, the open indication that a significant group of consumers no longer wishes to spend its available cash on the delights of the flesh, the stimulating and challenging advances being recorded by the professional in the applied sciences, the natural sciences, the social sciences and the mounting evidence from Faulkner to Pasternak that this is truly a great age of literature — all of these factors conspire together to assure a strong demand — and not a created demand, as John K. Galbraith might say — for top level adult educational fare.

The marriage of the paperback book and organized adult education has been consum-

mated. The two are natural partners, for with the burgeoning list of paperbacks in print, the organizers of adult education programs are neither required to stick by the tried and true classics, nor, if they wish to roam in unexplored fields, must they publish their own materials. Their programs can be broad, liberal, and yet inexpensive.

There are a number of new adult programs which are already making effective use of the paperbacks. The author helped to organize such a course two years ago in the small city of Easton, Pennsylvania.

Easton is a faded-looking little community of some thirty-five thousand people. For the most part, its citizens work in the somewhat varied industries or in the relatively large commercial and retail shopping center. Educationally, it is blessed with an adequate school system, and a good, small liberal arts-engineering institution, Lafayette College. Aside from the College, there is little to distinguish it from a hundred other cities of its size.

High level adult education has never been available in any sizeable doses. Six years ago, the first "World Politics" discussion group was organized. A pitifully small group struggled through the ten week session, but despite their limited numbers, its participants soon developed a sense of respect for the opportunities to be found in such meetings. Later, many of the first participants became the leaders of other "World Politics" groups. This American Foundation-sponsored program did expand and flourish. In one year, three simultaneous groups had to be offered within the community to satisfy the demand. But ultimately the active demand in a community as small as Easton was satiated, and ultimately too, the American Foundation For Political Education had to withdraw the promotional support which would have been necessary to "sell" those only mildly interested in the idea.

So the community turned to its own resources, and "New Viewpoints I" was born.

It should be noted that the experience with "World Politics" provided the incentive to

go on with adult education in Easton, and that certain of the weaknesses of "World Politics" suggested the direction. Two of the most commonly voiced complaints about that program were the brevity of the excerpts to be read and the lack of timeliness of some of the selections. Exposed to some fifty authors and documents, no one had an opportunity to gauge the value of a complete work, and some participants complained that the excerpts might have been taken out of context. Furthermore, questions of current interest were sometimes stifled because no portion of the reading happened to raise them.

"New Viewpoints I" became, therefore, a kind of advanced World Politics with the aforementioned objections removed.

The format of "New Viewpoints I" was based upon local experience and local resources. Six books were selected for the course, and six professors from Lafayette College were asked to act as session leaders. The group met once every three weeks for a two hour discussion session on the assigned work. While not acting as a seer on the issues discussed, the professor could provide background knowledge in the field as well as competent group discussion leadership.

The books selected for "New Viewpoints I" were: Raymond Aron's *The Century of Total War*; Sidney Hook's *Marx and the Marxists*; James B. Conant's *Modern Science and Modern Man*; Max Otto's *Science and the Moral Life*; William H. Whyte, Jr.'s *The Organization Man*; and Jacques Barzun's *Teacher in America*.

No foundation or other financial support was available to help initiate the program. The Jewish Community Center of Easton acted as sponsor, provided space for the meetings, advanced the cost of printing a simple descriptive brochure, and in many ways helped to acquaint the community about the course. Other agencies, such as the Easton Area Chamber of Commerce, the AFL-CIO Council and the Easton *Daily Express* lent support to the effort by publicizing it. By Easton standards, at least, the course was successful. Over fifty participants registered

in two separate groups. Clearly the demand was present and the product, it was felt, was a good one.

It might be added that the course was successful financially too. Each participant paid a fee of \$10.00. From fees collected, the sponsors were able to provide each member with a copy of the six books, pay an honorarium of \$10.00 per session to each of the "visiting professors," pay all printing and postage charges, and show a very tiny sum still in the cash box at the end of the course.

From the reaction of the "students" there was no question that "New Viewpoints I" had satisfied. Participation was enthusiastic throughout the course. Those who attended were in the main college graduates, though a few held no degree. As is the usual case, they represented a variety of personal, professional and business interests. The acid test is that many are back again this year for "New Viewpoints II."

"New Viewpoints" offers many adults what they crave in education: a certain amount of directed reading; an opportunity to discuss what is read with other persons of similar concern; a chance to present one's own analyses, judgments, conclusions for the group's disposal, thereby compelling a sharpening of the wit and the intellect; the oppor-

tunity to listen to other mature interpretations of a worthwhile piece of writing; and not the least, a sense of intellectual companionship. The paperback book brings such an objective within the reach of almost any community.

"New Viewpoints II" has stretched away considerably from the concerns of "World Politics." The books were selected by the suggestions of participants and discussion leaders. The topics covered are clearly less political and more cultural. In another year, the choice may swing back or may veer off in a totally new direction. The program can be tailored to local desires, since, for all intents and purposes, the material is inexhaustable.

Participants this year are reading: George Santayana's *Character and Opinion in the United States*; Wilbur J. Cash's *The Mind of the South*; Louis Kronenberger's *Company Manners*; Arthur Miller's *Death of a Salesman*; Lewis Mumford's *Sticks and Stones*; and one hardbound book, Will Herberg's *Protestant Catholic Jew*.

It is still too early to say what they will be reading next year. All that is known is that there will be a "New Viewpoints III." And IV and V too if the community craves it.

Beethoven and the Call to Freedom: A New Demension in the Teaching of History

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A recent, and most encouraging, trend in the teaching of Modern European History is the growing emphasis on the great cultural contributions of civilization. Formerly these were merely glossed over at best or entirely avoided as being extraneous or irrelevant.

We smugly taught that the pen was mightier than the sword, yet more American public schools were named after generals than philosophers, and still are. We were applying the business concept of success in the classroom. In order to be mentioned, one had to

achieve something "positive" or "tangible." Leave the culture to the English, art, and music departments. We had enough to do tracing the campaigns of Alexander, Caesar, and Napoleon. Ideas mattered little as long as our students colored in their desk maps neatly.

Then came the freedom and encouragement to broaden the scope of history teaching through enrichment. At last, fresh air! We had begun to realize that we had given the conquerors and destroyers a surfeit of space and coverage in our bulging textbooks (some of which are approaching the thousand page mark; unlike sound, there seems to be no page barrier), while by and large we had neglected the creators and builders, especially in the aesthetic realm. We covered the creators and builders all right if they were involved politically, socially, economically, or militarily, but not if their contributions were of an artistic nature. Yet, the field of music alone provides a wealth of material for the teacher who is willing to grant Tchaikovsky and Borodin equal time with the Romanov family and have the same arrangement between Napoleon and Beethoven. The music I refer to fits properly into a history course with due planning and preparation. It is usually nationalistic, sometimes intensely so, and traces a great event or development or dream of history as surely as does the textbook writer traditionally stressing the political details. I refer to Tchaikovsky's *1812 Overture* for the Napoleonic period and his *Marche Slav* in honor of the wounded Slavic soldiers of the Turko-Serbian War. The latter work, composed in 1876, is certainly a manifestation of the Pan-Slavic movement of the time. *Finlandia* is that country's national anthem, composed by Sibelius, and can be played when paying a hurried visit vicariously to the Baltic region. The Czech yearning for freedom is mirrored in Smetana's symphonic poem, *The Moldau*. An idea of life in ancient Egypt can be gleaned from a trip to the nearest opera house to see Verdi's *Aida*. The rise of a totalitarian German nationalism (but not its later tragic consequences) found a champion in Wagner's glorification

of the Siegfried warrior legend in the famous *Ring* operas. Rimsky-Korsakoff's *Russian Easter Overture* is another case in point, and so are Moussorgsky's opera, *Boris Godounow*, and Borodin's *Prince Igor Overture* and *Polovetzian Dances*. These men helped form Western civilization, of which we consider ourselves not merely an appendage but an integral part. In our own history, the 1920's have come to be known as the "Jazz Age." This list can be extended almost indefinitely. I prefer, however, to deal mainly with one of the greatest lovers of liberty in history, Ludwig von Beethoven.

If it really is a gift of the gods to be born with the ability to create beauty that is powerful, inspiring, and majestic, that carries with it a message of hope and freedom and liberty, that can rouse men out of their apathy and near lethargy, Beethoven was so gifted. During World War II, the first four notes of his Fifth Symphony became popularly associated as a symbol in the public mind with "V for Victory" in Morse code. Coincidence or not, the Fifth Symphony was completed in 1807, decades before the invention of the Morse code. No spokesman for the integrity of man ever pleaded his case with greater eloquence than Beethoven. His music, like Anne Frank's diary, has left a timeless message to us all, the love and hope and dignity of man and human life, a thrilling proof that man can and will survive because of his indestructible spirit that no power or force can hope to crush. He has been called the Titan and the Master. Of all his nine symphonies, one of his great favorites was the Third, in E-Flat Major, Op. 55, popularly called the "Eroica" or "Heroic," completed in 1804. Modern Beethoven scholars believe that, contrary to previously accepted fact, this symphony was not dedicated to Napoleon but was, in effect, autobiographical. Lawrence Gilman, the late music critic of the New York *Herald Tribune* and author of *Orchestral Music: An Armchair Guide*, tells us that "The vast passions of the 'Eroica' constitute such a tornado as would have burst the breast of any but the gigantic hero whom Beethoven believed himself to be portraying, and who

was certainly more himself than 'Bonaparte' . . ." In calling this work "a jubilant exhortation to all mankind, a foreshadowing of the finales of the Fifth and Ninth Symphonies," John N. Burk, historian of the Boston Symphony Orchestra and author of *The Life and Works of Beethoven*, says:

The idealized heroism of the *Eroica*, music of profound and personal experience, could have been nothing else than autobiographical. The heroism is Beethoven's own indomitable spirit extended and universalized. . . . Nothing could have been more incongruous to this picture than the self-vaunting soldier-statesman from Corsica. If Beethoven could have met and spoken to Napoleon even for a few minutes, his quick intuition would have perceived in him the callous despoiler, obtuse to his own pretension of noble aim.

To Beethoven, as to many others, Napoleon had seemed a symbol of liberation after the tyranny of the *ancien regime* had been removed in France. The spirit of the Revolution was to have ushered in a new order of human emancipation based upon republican principles. Burk continues:

Napoleon was a name standing for it (liberation), a convenient popular title. . . . Beethoven's idea of Napoleon was probably as vague as his concept of heroism was precise. . . . But no man on this earth could have fitted the dimensions of the *Eroica* — none save the artist who wrote it, at the moment of writing it.

The disillusionment of Beethoven can well be imagined when Napoleon proclaimed himself Emperor. Gone were the republican dreams, and Beethoven, in a burst of rage, tore the title page bearing the name 'Bonaparte' from the score of the *Eroica*, exclaiming bitterly, "Then is he, too, only an ordinary human being?"

Beethoven's underlying yearning for freedom, this time in nature, is clearly seen in his "Pastoral," Symphony No. 6 in F, Op. 68, completed in 1808. This work provides an escape, a refreshment, a healing power, a solace. To Beethoven, repose could be found only in nature. The countryside was free and

symbolic of man's dream of love and global brotherhood. It should be remembered that Beethoven had become deaf by this time. Despite this, he reached the very heart of nature and found strength and peace, a reaffirmation of life.

In his *Overture to Egmont*, composed in 1810 as incidental music to Goethe's tragedy, we see Beethoven's attraction to Goethe's hero, Count Egmont, the champion of the spirit of rebellion in the Netherlands against the brutal tyranny of the Spanish Duke of Alba. After Egmont's execution on the scaffold, his courage lives on in the unquenchable spirit of his people.

His Concerto No. 5 in E-Flat Major, Op. 73, the famous "Emperor" Concerto, was completed at the height of the Battle of Wagram, on the outskirts of Vienna, in July, 1809. He seemed indifferent to the thundering of the guns under Vienna's walls. The stirring events taking place within earshot and even sight could not have had much of an effect on his advanced deafness. Occasionally during the battle he would take refuge in the cellar of a relative's home, but the concerto was completed without any great interruption. The armies came and went, but the concerto remained. It was called the "Emperor" only because of its qualities of grandeur and was dedicated to the Archduke Rudolph, one of Beethoven's most powerful and helpful friends as well as his pupil.

Does not his Ninth Symphony in D Minor, the "Choral," completed in 1824, a work of majestic proportions with the final chorus written on Schiller's *Ode To Joy*, have its rightful place in history as an achievement of monumental stature comparable to anything else accomplished in the entire nineteenth century? If the criterion of permanent value be applied, most other heralded deeds would pale by the contrast. All the petty kings and nobles and politicians would fade away. If we ever did apply this yardstick of permanent value, there would be a revolution in the teaching of history. It seems, however, that of all people, history teachers make the worst possible adjustment to the forces of change. Is this an occupational hazard? With us, it

is primarily the past. With scientists, it is primarily the future. With many of our students, it is primarily the present. Do we dwell in an isolated vacuum of our own making? Have we dwelt too long among the dead things of the past to the extent that today's natural sunlight makes us blink and rub our eyes? It seems that many of us compulsively teach something merely because it happened at one time or another without any thought whatsoever of permanent value. Indeed, what are our values?

Obviously, this approach is not suited to all classes. The advanced students, however, and not necessarily only those in the college preparatory course, can absorb this music with profit. English departments might employ this approach as well. Music is poetry and evokes similar mental images of beauty. I refer to Tchaikovsky's two overtures, *Romeo and Juliet* and *Hamlet* (*Fantasy Overture*). His *Nutcracker Suite* is appropriate for holiday seasons. There is also Mendelssohn's *A Midsummer Night's Dream*. In opera, we have Verdi's *Falstaff* and Gounod's

Faust, the latter based on Goethe's tragedy. In American history, Gershwin expresses the American dream beautifully in our unique contribution to music, jazz. Another work of note is Ferde Grofe's *Grand Canyon Suite*. This, like many of Gershwin's works, is symphonic jazz.

Thus, a new dimension can be introduced into the teaching of history, affording a greater depth and perspective than heretofore imagined. Most likely many history teachers have been employing this method for years. This article, therefore, is not to be construed as the announcement of a new invention by any means. Other teachers have stressed historically the great art works of civilization, such as illustrating the Battle of Hastings by means of the Bayeux tapestry.

We have brought the motion picture into the classroom. We have also made use of the voice recording and tape, such as Edward R. Murrow's three volume (record) series, *I Can Hear It Now*. At this time the medium of educational television is being introduced. Why not the concert hall?

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

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OBSERVATIONS AND COMMENTS

On Reading Books

Harry Golden, author of *Only in America*, had some searching observations about "Books Are An Escape Into Experience," in connection with last year's commemoration of National Library Week, *The New York Times Book Review*, April 12, 1959. He recalled his experiences with the New York Public Library on Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street during the year 1917. There was a shortage of coal that year.

"It was my first distinct impression," he wrote, "of how important a public library was. I went there every day to get warm.

There were thousands like me — school children, adults, even mothers with their babies in a go-cart . . ."

Reminiscing on the local branch of the library, Mr. Golden recalls:

" . . . There were no restrictions and only one law. You had to show your hands, both sides, to the lady at the desk. If they weren't clean you had to wash them before they let you touch the books."

In a more serious vein, Mr. Golden observed how the library offered more than an escape from the cold. It provided through its looks "an escape into experience."

We recall, in this connection, a little book

by John Ruskin, *Sesame and Lilies*. It was part of our high school reading list. Briefly, Ruskin's theme was this: People go out of their way to be near, to hear, or just to get a glimpse of a great personage when he happens to visit their locality. If the same great person were to grant these same people an individual audience for even a minute, there would be no end to their joyous excitement. Yet, the greatest of the world's great personages are willing to talk — not for a minute but for hours and days — to anyone who will go only slightly out of his way. Ruskin was referring, of course, to books. Ruskin also made the significant point that, in most cases, a person puts the best of himself in a book.

Returning to Mr. Golden's excerpt of books being an escape into experience, he offers this pithy observation:

"... Travel, we say, is broadening. Why a book? Because no matter how much people praise travel, the actual process of getting from one place to another is a stationary process. You have one seat in a plane or one berth in a sleeper, and to sit in that one place for hours on end is ultimate boredom. People escape from this boredom by reading, for boredom is simply an absence of experience."

This accounts for the sale of so many magazines and paperbound books in railroad and subway stations and even airports.

In further praise of books and the library, Mr. Golden reminds us that:

"... To use a library you do not have to subject yourself to a battery of personality and value tests as you do to get a job as a typist. The library ... is the last of our public institutions to which you can go without credentials. You don't need a college degree ... You don't need a sticker on your windshield ... All you need is the willingness to read."

A somewhat different approach to the value of books and reading was expressed in a letter to the editor of *The New York Times* (April 11, 1959) by Constance Warren, President Emeritus of Sarah Lawrence College. In discussing the related topics of education in today's world, the American high school, and the granting of scholarships to young people, Miss Warren raised the ques-

tion of why there aren't more children from families with incomes of less than \$5000.00 applying for college scholarships. The need to earn money after high school graduation is not the only reason. From her own observation she cites lack of motivation as another reason. The reason for the lack of proper motivation frequently reflects an absence of good reading literature in the home.

"I do not mean to say," writes Miss Warren, "that there are not many ambitious, stimulating parents from all grades of economic life, but the deadening effects of hard physical labor plus the *lack of cultural stimulus* [italics mine] among parents ... tend to lessen the portion in that group. Moreover, some parents in the low income group tend to resist, often unconsciously, the thought of a college education for their child because it might alienate him."

In order to stop the waste of human talent, by the failure of qualified young people to go to college, "we must look behind the children to the parents. We must stress far more than we are doing all the ways of bringing cultural interests to these adults, good reading in cheap paperbacks, active community libraries, especially rural bookmobiles, more widespread adult education evening classes in the schools, radio and television."

It is no new observation but still a very significant one that in the home children learn more by example than through preachment.

Writing in *The NEA Journal* (April, 1959) on the subject of book reading, Elmo Roper touched on the same theme. He cites a study made by his organization ten years ago on voluntary book reading.

"Only 18% were currently reading a book and less than a third even claimed to have done *any* voluntary book reading during the preceding month. Another 18% had apparently never read a book that they weren't required to read."

In 1957 Dr. George Gallup, in a cross-section study, repeated the same question of an earlier study on the extent of reading *any* books or novels. The percentage of adults reading any book at all dropped from 21 to 17. Other countries compared with us as

follows: England — 55%; West Germany — 34%; Australia — 33%; Canada — 31%.

"These figures," wrote Mr. Roper, "do not reflect a condition that exists only among those in our country who have little formal education. . . . In an age when intellectual achievement has become a prime component in the battle for survival, the dearth of voluntary reading is no longer a matter for head-wagging and tongue-clicking. It symbolizes an absence of intellectual curiosity and of cultural ferment that we as a nation cannot afford."

The school's responsibility in developing and nurturing good reading habits — habits that will persist after formal education has ended — cannot be overlooked. But the school is like a lone knight fighting a many-headed dragon, representing all the forces in the home and in society which discourage reading. In a large measure, the home is really the starting place for the initiating and the nurturing of a love of reading on the part of children. In order to stimulate parents to start thinking about their share in this responsibility, schools might consider the desirability of sponsoring a series of parent meetings on this whole subject. Some suggested questions for these meetings might be:

1. What role does or should reading play in a child's personal growth?
2. How important is reading to a person's success in school and later in college?
3. How are reading comprehension and writing related to success in business?
4. How is the home — particularly the parents — related to children's reading habits?
5. How can and when should parents attempt to create a favorable climate for reading?
6. How can parents start and maintain a home reading program for themselves and for their children?
7. What are some specific things parents should do to foster on the part of their children:
 - reading for pleasure?
 - reading for personal growth and character building?

better reading and study habits — necessary for success in school?

8. What can parents do when they discover that their child has a reading or speech problem? How is this diagnosed? How can it be remedied?
9. What community resources are available to parents to assist them in fostering good reading habits on the part of their children?
10. Can television, the movies, and the radio be utilized in fostering good reading habits?

Not all parents realize that the pattern for the kinds of reading habits their children develop is initially determined, in most cases, by the psychological atmosphere at home — the importance attributed to reading by the parents; by what and how much they themselves read; and by the encouragement they give to their children. There is a subtle and more lasting influence by what parents practice than by what they preach.

In some measure, the whole of our society is responsible for the lack of emphasis on reading. We quote again from Mr. Roper's article:

"... I suspect that most teachers join me in my concern over the fact that so many people who *can* read don't."

"... book reading does not have 'folk status' in our society. In general, our schools teach the skill, but our society does not reward, commend, or even expect the continuing use of this skill — unless it is job-connected. And in the absence of social expectations, pressures, and incentives, the rewards of book reading to the *individual* apparently are not sufficient to nourish and sustain the habit among our adult population . . .

"Teachers, above all other groups, devote themselves to intellectual achievements. Although there are many avenues to wisdom, books remain the prime source. Imagine the intellectual renaissance that would sweep through America if one-tenth of the status, animation, diligence, and social approval that attaches to sports should be channeled into the intellectual treasure that lies in reading

good books and thinking and talking about them."

It is not expected that one or even several programs will revolutionize the cultural patterns of parents and children. It is hoped, however, that parents will gain a newer insight into the importance of reading in all aspects of life, and appreciate more fully how the home can, along with the schools, serve as the motivating force in fostering more and better reading on the part of their children.

Educational Innovations in Reading

A new study plan (*New York Times*, April 12, 1958) designed to make the college student intellectually self-reliant has been introduced at Dartmouth College (September 1958), Hanover, New Hampshire. It is an academic adventure which, if successful, should "produce a fundamental shift in higher education—from teaching to learning," and from the lecture hall to the library. Still in the experimental stage, but attracting considerable attention in the college world, the new plan abolishes the traditional two-semester academic year in favor of a three-term year. The length of the school year remains unchanged.

Under the new program, a student takes three courses each of the three terms (eleven weeks each) instead of the traditional five courses in each of the two terms a year. Each course is generally scheduled for four hours a week instead of three.

The principal feature of this new system is the *compulsory independent reading program*, not related to any course. A student is required to read six books a year, during the first two years, from a specially prepared list of books considered essential to a "well-educated man." A few of the titles included in the list are: Homer's *The Iliad*; Plato's *Decalogues*; Chaucer's *The Canterbury Tales*; and Thucydides *The Peloponnesian War*. The second two-year reading program is supervised by the faculty and is designed "to supplement the student's major course program."

Dartmouth's president, John Doan Dickey, states that "This is no post-sputnick educa-

tional gadget . . . (but) a program designed primarily to make the student more independent of the textbooks and the teacher."

The whole experiment, known as the "three-three plan," is the result of a three year study by a faculty committee. The initial results seem to be promising as witnessed by (1) a 20% increase in the college library; (2) a 50% increase in the sale of non-course paper-bound books; and (3) more upper classmen (58%) spending more time studying than under the two-semester program.

A Brief Look Into Existentialism

Existentialism as a philosophy is probably little understood by most people. We asked a colleague (Mr. Sam Freas, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia, Pa.) who has done considerable study in the field to give a brief definition of existentialism. He did, and it follows:

There have been many and varied interpretations of Existentialism both before and since its formal presentation by Sven Kierkegaard. In substance the existentialist idea is always the same, being, in brief, the concept that man is in full and complete control of his own destiny.

As a word, existentialism stems from the phrase, "existence comes before essence," which is interpreted as an intense kind of subjectivity in which one must become aware of his own uniqueness and separateness (existence) before he can move up to higher things (essence).

The following are some ideas considered to have importance to existentialists:

1. Individuals have the capacity to will a change or improvement for themselves.
2. People begin on this road to higher things by reacting negatively to their present world . . . "of half man" . . . "ape world" . . . "hell on earth" . . . mediocrity, etc.
3. The material world and such concepts as the Freudian Unconscious are rejected as a conditioner of human progress. Progress is felt to be evolved by individuals through the power of Will.
4. Soul-searching by existentialists and

- negative reactions to men as he sees them lead existentialists to be very serious, often appearing as depressed.
5. Man is felt to define the world by his own reaction to it. The philosophy seems to be used by artists, poets, etc. rather than formalized philosophy.
 6. The existentialists strives for a rather intensified self-control and "immersion into life" and becomes hypersensitive even to the most commonplace of things.
 7. Existentialist types
 - a. Tanner in Shaw's *Man and Superman*
 - b. Nijinsky as a dancer
 - c. Christ as a religious teacher
 - d. Jacob Boehme, the poet
 - e. Rainer Rilke, the poet
 - f. Dostoevsky in *Crime and Punishment* and *Brothers Karamazov*
 - g. Van Gogh's personal life
 8. Villains of existentialists
 - a. Paul as a teacher of Christianity
 - b. Most of us
 9. Quotes seeming to grasp existentialistic trend:
 - a. Shaw has Caesar say in a play — "Hail Sphinx—you and I, strangers to the ways of men, are not strangers to each other."
 - b. Eliot in an elegy writes, "Where is the life we lost in living?"
 - c. Nijinsky when asked about his belief in God, replied, "When I dance I am God."
 - d. Toynbee states, "abstract philosophies turn men into pygmies."
 - e. Rimbaud "One makes oneself a visionary."
 - f. Kierkegaard — "Let others complain that the age is wicked; my complaint is that it is wretched, for it lacks passion."
 - g. Shaw — "this world is a place of torment and penance where the fool flourishes and the good and wise are hated . . ."

Existentialism seems to be the philosophy for the few, the sensitive, the aesthetes. Because of this, its impact upon our society may be somewhat more than commonplace.

Instructional Materials

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Paraguay—Yesterday and Tomorrow. 17 min. Color. Sale. Paul Hoefer Productions. Points out that Paraguay is one of the least-known countries of South America because of its isolation from the sea.

Assignment: Venezuela. 25 min. Color. Free-loan. Modern Talking Picture Service, 3 E. 54 St., New York 22, N. Y. Modern, rapidly developing Venezuela today — seen through the eyes of a young petroleum engineer from the U. S. as he learns to work and live as a guest in this country.

Central America. 10 min. Black and white. Color. Sale/rental. Coronet Films, Inc., Coronet Building, Chicago 1, Ill. Presents an overview of the six Central American republics and British Honduras. The economic importance of the Panama Canal and Central American seaports is discussed.

Guatemala. 11 min. Black and White. Color. Sale. Park Films, 228 North Almont Drive, Beverly Hills, Calif. Shows the Guatemalans' love for the land and their free way of life — reasons for defeat of the communist campaign in that land.

Introducing the Latin Americas. 29 min. Black and white. Rental. NET Film Service, Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. Discusses the geography of Latin America, including information on the area and population.

Prelude to the Revolution. 29 min. Black and white. Rental. NET Film Service. Sketches the background of the independence movement in the Latin Americas early in the 19th century; the intellectual revolution in Europe, Anglo-American and French breaks with past; and unrest in the Latin American colonies.

Wars for Independence in Spanish South America. 29 min. Black and white. Rental. NET Film Service. Explains how, one by one, the Spanish colonies broke away and realized their ambition for independence. Reviews the influence of such leaders as Bolivar and San Martin in establishing new nations.

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Honduras. 40 min. Color. Free-loan. Association Films, Inc., 347 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y. In Honduras, stone temples stand in mute tribute to a bygone civilization; a bountiful nature yields coffee in the highlands, bananas in the valleys, gold and silver from the earth, and sugar cane and mahogany.

FILMSTRIPS

Pan-American Partners. 60 fr. Black and white. Sale. Office of Educational Activities, *The N. Y. Times*, 229 W. 43 St., New York 36, N. Y. Presents the conditions which make for unity and understanding between the countries of North and South America, as well as the factors which breed discord.

Working Together. Two filmstrips. Black and white. Sale. Textfilm Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 W. 42 St., New York 36, N. Y. Tells how the Latin American countries, with the help of the United Nations and Specialized Agencies, are working together to develop the resources of the continent and raise living standards of the

people. Part I: "Report on Economic Progress in Latin America" (56 fr.); Part II: "Report on Social Progress in Latin America," (60 fr.).

Changing Latin America. 38 fr. Black and white. Free-loan. Current Affairs Films,

527 Madison Avenue, New York 22, N. Y. Discussion of Latin America's economic and political problems. Explains that dictatorships and economic specialization in one agricultural or mineral product are reasons for instability.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Abraham Lincoln High School, Philadelphia

The Nature of Things. By Don Hawley. New York: The Philosophical Library, Inc., 1959. Pp. xi, 187. \$3.75.

The Nature of Things presents one of the more recent, readable, and reasonable approaches to the traditional Platonistic position. Contrary to the claim of the cover jacket the philosophical doctrines and proposals which Mr. Hawley presents appear neither revolutionary nor new. His refutation of strict Darwinism, Time Dialation, etc., are by-products of the attack upon materialistic reality. In his attack he not only casts considerable doubt upon some current scientific theories, but also orientates others to fit classical lines.

Mr. Hawley believes total existence is comprised of a noumenal-spiritual world and a phenomenal-material world. The energy of said existence is generated from the Supreme Intelligence in the form of Love. Man perceives and operates in the determined phenomenal world but is led into the undetermined noumenal world by great religious leaders such as Jesus Christ.

Modern science is that which discovers and records the cause-and-effect determinates of the phenomenal world. Science in no way can create Love but is capable only of revealing how the Creator releases His Love. Regardless of the pretentiousness of various scientific theories, ultimate causality rests with

God. Contemporary Man's dependency upon materialistic science can only lead to his ultimate self-destruction. In order to be saved from physical and spiritual destruction, Man must first conquer his own worst enemy . . . himself. True scientific investigation can do this. The true science is that which willingly accepts pre-cognition, religious revelation, and extra-sensory perception in addition to the current scientific practices in seeking the Truth. Such a science will carry man beyond the current of limited and artificially imposed human constructs. Ultimately, religion and science will merge, as both seek the Truth which emanates from the Mind. Due to the fact that their means differ, modern Man has become confused by materialistic reality and has failed to acknowledge the spiritual imperatives of "science."

Although Mr. Hawley presents his material in a highly rational manner, I have little faith in the ability of the book to convince non-believers of his particular brand of Platonism. To those who are already inclined to believe, his presentation is wholly palatable and offers strong support. Regardless of agreement or disagreement with Mr. Hawley's "spiritual-material" approach to existence, the reader should not miss Mr. Hawley's main theme: the rejection of materialistic reality and the urgent need for a rejuvenated spiritual *weltanschauung*.

History has shown the limitedness and frailty of human rational powers to explain existence solely on a cause-and-effect basis. There assuredly appears to be some logic, order, or sentiment which exceeds materialistic reality. The Platonistic theory presented in *The Nature of Things* is a recurrent theme and worthy of consideration. Mr. Hawley perceives correctly in that a spiritual rejuvenation is urgently needed before mankind plunges himself and his planet into oblivion, beyond his own limited concepts of time, space, and matter.

JOHN ALAN BAUM

Stanford University
Stanford, California

The Case for Basic Education. Edited by James D. Koerner. Boston: Atlantic-Little, Brown, 1959. Pp. xiii, 256. \$4.00.

"You cannot order a dinner or close a business deal in classical Greek or Latin. You can learn from it what it means to be human; to be wise and courageous, just and self-controlled, to accept your fate and rise above it, to be a responsible citizen in a free society."

In this tone eighteen professors, a literary critic, a school board member, and the executive secretary of the Council for Basic Education join hands to sing the praises of the traditional academic subjects in the high school.

The eighteen scholars, none of whom is engaged in public high school teaching, present competent, if sometimes tedious arguments for the values of their respective disciplines.

Among the most convincing are Ray Billington's defense of American History, Joel Hildebrand's essay on the teaching of chemistry, the piece on literature by Harvard's Douglas Bush, and the scintillating chapter on speech by Bower Aly of Oregon. The liveliest, if the least convincing writing, is in Clifton Fadiman's robust introduction.

The editor calls the book a statement for the layman about goals in education, an attempt to define the nature and the need of education in certain basic subjects, and to describe what grasp a good student should

have after twelve years of schooling. Few will argue with the splendid generalities. Would that the editor had taken a few more pages to translate these ideas into a curriculum recommendation.

The Council for Basic Education which sponsors this book believes that all students without exception should receive adequate instruction on the basic intellectual disciplines, especially English, mathematics, history, science, and foreign languages.

The Portland Oregon school board member who writes the epilogue for this volume complains that meetings devoted to academic curriculum attract fewer than twenty-five citizens, while those devoted to homemaking or driver training play to overflow audiences.

As Plato once observed, "What is honored in a country will be cultivated there."

DONALD W. ROBINSON

Carlmont High School
Belmont, California

Our American Government Today. By Edith E. Starratt and Morris Lewenstein. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1958. Pp. xi, 516.

This is an outstanding textbook for high school courses in American Government. It is written by two persons who have had considerable experience in teaching social studies courses in high schools and in curriculum development and educational methods, in consultation with Professors James M. Burns and Jack W. Peltason, authors of one of the most popular college texts in the same field. The collaboration is a happy one.

The authors emphasize the actual operations as well as the structure of our governmental system, the underlying ideas on which it is founded, and the role of people in government at all levels. They have taken particular pains in selecting appropriate and attractive illustrative materials, and in preparing three or four pages of useful teaching aids and suggestions for each chapter. In their commendable zeal for clarity of expression, they often seem to sacrifice substance for style, and their fondness for the simple

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example occasionally leads them to exaggerate or oversimplify.

There are a number of minor errors or misleading statements. For example, the Senate gives its advice and consent to treaties; it does not ratify them. The National Security Council does not make decisions; it makes recommendations to the President, who alone has the power of decision-making.

On the whole, however, the book is soundly conceived and the material is effectively presented. It is a live book on a live subject. For this the teachers and students who use it should be deeply grateful.

NORMAN D. PALMER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Parties and Politics in Modern France. By Richard Barron. Public Affairs Press, Washington, D. C., 1959. Pp. xi, 213. \$4.50.

The author is right when claiming that "French party politics is proverbially complex" (p. ix). Hence his effort to provide us

with an understanding of the nature and distinguishing characteristics of French practical politics and political parties is most commendable. In this respect, he has handled ably and well his theme within the framework of the post-war setting, organized politics, the communist party, the socialist party, the popular republican movement, DeGaulle's political support and the minor parties. But we could probably question his assumption that "most of the material and the treatment thereof is new" (p. ix). It is true that Barron displays a definite grasp of some hardly accessible sources in his "References" (pp. 199-212); but for some reason he has ignored some easily accessible sources. For that reason we also must regret that he has not included an annotated bibliography. Yet, his study is one of the best and readable introductions to the background of France's contemporary political and social convulsions.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

The Gifted Group at Mid-Life. By Lewis M. Terman and Melita H. Oden. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1959. Pp. xvi, 187. \$4.50.

This is the fifth volume of the study of "giftedness" begun by Professor Terman in 1921. At that time the nearly 1500 members of his group were about eleven; at the time of his death in 1956 these "children" had reached their mid-forties. During the intervening years Terman had maintained such a close personal relationship with them that 95 per cent were still active research subjects. Terman's continuous data collection stretches over three decades and represents one of the most complete evaluation programs ever attempted.

Preceding reports deal with "Mental and Physical Traits of a Thousand Gifted Children," "Early Mental Traits of Three Hundred Geniuses," "The Promise of Youth," and "The Gifted Child Grows Up." This series is well known and respect for Professor Terman has made the findings thus far a part of the standard literature relating to genetic studies in precocity.

When Terman came to Stanford in 1910 the scientific study of the intellect had barely begun. In Paris, Binet had constructed an ingenious device for measuring academic promise in school children and at Columbia's Teachers College Thorndike had already started work on the measurement of school achievement. "But it remained for Lewis Terman to conceive the development of a rigorous intelligence test that would select the ablest children and thus allow society to focus its full educative power on developing their potential." (p. viii).

Throughout the volumes noted above the thesis stated continues to be the controlling motif. This, of course, is true in the present issue. Throughout eleven chapters Dr. Oden, who completed the work after Professor Terman's demise, speaks of Mortality, Health, General Adjustment, Intellectual Status at Mid-Life, Schooling, Career, Marriage and Divorce, and "The Fulfillment of Promise." The data on adjustment submitted suggest a

greater maladjustment on the part of women of "high IQ"; in Concept Mastery scores the sex difference is in the other direction. Data from retests of the gifted group give strong evidence that intelligence of the type tested by the Concept Mastery test continues to increase at least through age 50. The divorce rate is high as is also the rate of remarriage; when the gifted subjects divorce and remarry they tend to make happy remarriages.

"From a practical utilitarian point of view the real test of the significance and value of this high degree of mental ability is the use that is made of such gifts." (p. 144). The record here indicates certain academic and literary successes for the women although "our gifted women in the main, however, are housewives . . ." 86 percent of the men are found in the professions and the semi-professions (including higher business). Three college or university administrators are listed as are eight businessmen who have achieved *Who's Who*. The men have produced nearly 2000 scientific and technical papers and articles and some 60 books and monographs. Among the men eleven percent are in smaller retail business, clerical and skilled occupations. Farming and related occupations attract two percent and one percent are in semiskilled work.

It would be rude indeed to allege special pleading in Dr. Oden's analysis of the fulfillment of promise. However—in the opinion of this reviewer—it is becoming increasingly clear that what has been labeled IQ is only a prediction of "academic" success and to protract this inclination further may result in the working of a grave injustice both to the "gifted" and those not so denominated.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Montana State University
Missoula, Montana

Group Psychoanalysis. By Wassell, B. B. N. Y.: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. xiii, 306. \$4.00.

The author, an experienced practitioner and teacher of individual and group psychoanalysis, is interested primarily in recording

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and transmitting his experiences and impressions with group analysis in order to enlighten and stimulate the interest of therapists involved exclusively in work with individuals as well as to provide for laymen some understanding of the procedure. He cautions that only the first few chapters will be readily comprehended by the intelligent layman, for the major portion of the book deals with the complex problems and principles of individual and group psychodynamics. The reviewer agrees that this material will be somewhat difficult and confusing for the lay reader because no foundation for its comprehension is laid in earlier sections of the book and a profusion of psychological jargon is used.

In the first chapter the author touches upon several general considerations which have evolved from his experience, such as the definition and goals of group analysis, optimal group size and seating arrangement, principles guiding the selection of patients according to severity of illness, age, socioeconomic status, sex, etc., the kinds of problems which individuals bring to group therapy, purposes and procedures of the preliminary individual interviews, analytic techniques and amount of involvement practiced by the group leader, and some common fears of patients about to undergo group therapy. In later chapters the author attempts to amplify each of these areas and to discuss the dynamics of the group process, assessment of progress and change in patients, problems incident to termination of therapy, the features of group analysis which differentiate it from individual therapy, and a consideration of the advantages and limitations of group technique.

Despite this attempt to survey the problems, principles and techniques of group analysis, the volume certainly cannot serve as a handbook or reference on the subject. It deals with major principles only briefly, and is primarily impressionistic. There are only a few fleeting references to the need for research and no attempt to systematically integrate or summarize the research literature. The discourse is discursive, and not designed to provide a tightly organized view of the

theory, process and outcome of group analysis.

In line with his purpose of transmitting the benefits of his experiences and impressions, the author provides many suggestions for therapists as well as numerous brief descriptions of the individual and group dynamics from his therapeutic practice. His expository technique would have been more effective in illustrating the therapeutic process, however, if he had included some verbatim protocols from group sessions. The book may serve to stimulate interest in the possibilities of group treatment, but the reader is apt to be disappointed if he expects to find a lucid, comprehensive coverage of the field.

ALBERT ROSEN

University of Maryland
College Park, Maryland

Courtship and Marriage. Revised and expanded edition. By Francis E. Merrill. New York: Henry Holt and Company, c. 1959. Pp. x, 451. \$4.95.

Courtship and Marriage strikes this reviewer as an exceptionally fine book on a number of counts—its conception, its organization, its use of research data, and especially its educational philosophy. Stating emphatically that the book is not a manual on sex adjustment, marital happiness, or household management, and disclaiming the roles of psychiatrist, gynecologist, and home economist, Professor Merrill embarks frankly and confidently as a sociologist on the study of courtship and marriage as forms of social interaction. He indirectly disarms the so-called "functionalists" in this field by stating as his belief, "If liberal education—especially in the humanities and social sciences—has an ultimate functional meaning, it should rest in the development of wiser, more tolerant, and better-informed human beings who will, in due course, make better husbands, wives, and parents." The study is thereby immediately taken out of the realm of how-to-do-it manuals, and is placed in the cultural and social setting of mores, institutions, and social change. The analysis emphasizes social

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interaction, the central theme of society, with special attention to the manifold social roles that the interaction takes.

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At every point, Professor Merrill grounds his work in research studies, and writes it all in an interesting and orderly fashion. Extensive footnotes appear at the end of each of the twenty-seven chapters. An annotated bibliography is arranged by chapters. The book is presented in attractive format, without resort to half-tones, diagrams, charts, anatomical drawings, marriage prediction tests, and other such devices. It is a book to appeal to the serious student or general reader. If it were adopted as a text in courses on marriage, education for family living, and family life, education in the field would be immeasurably advanced.

WAYNE C. NEELY

Hood College
Frederick, Maryland

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BOOKNOTES

Teachers of world history and high school librarians will want at least one copy—and

perhaps several—of a new bulletin entitled *World History Book List for High Schools: A Selection for Supplement Reading*. Priced at \$1.25, the 120-page booklet is available from the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

Anyone who has ever taught the world history course knows that the textbook can do little more than cover the bare bones of history from earliest times to mid-twentieth century. The colorful detail, the interesting anecdote, the illuminating insight,—all of which constitute the flesh and blood of history—must be sacrificed, more often than not, to the popular demand for a volume of no more than 700 to 800 pages of exposition presented chronologically, geographically or topically.

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"Stupendous," is the word one reviewer uses to describe the new MGM Technicolor movie, *Ben-Hur*. Others who have seen the 3½-hour film, which is based on a novel of the early Christian era by Civil War hero General Lew Wallace, agree with that appraisal of the picture.

The movie, much of which was filmed in Italy, took 5 years to make. Its action-packed scenes take the viewer from bitter conflicts in Rome to Palestine where Christ walks to Calvary burdened with a heavy cross.

Charlton Heston plays the part of *Ben-Hur*, Jack Hawkins acts as Quintus Arrius, and Haya Harrareet takes the role of Esther. Other stars in the film include Stephen Boyd, Hugh Griffith, Martha Scott, Cathy O'Donnell, and Sam Jaffe.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED
Commonwealth of Americas. By Byron D. Murray. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. vii, 219. \$3.75.

The United States to 1865. By Michael Kraus. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1959. Pp. xxi, 529. \$7.50.

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- Third Parties in American Politics.* By Howard P. Nash, Jr. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. Pp. xi, 326. \$6.00.
- Courtship and Marriage.* By Francis E. Merrill. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1959. Pp. xxvii, 451. \$4.95.
- Class and Class Conflict in Industrial Society.* By Ralf Dahrendorf. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1959. Pp. viii, 336. \$6.50.
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- Crisis Diplomacy. A History of U. S. Intervention, Policies and Practices.* By D. A. Graber. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. Pp. viii, 224. \$4.50.
- Parties and Politics in Modern France.* By Richard Barron. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. Pp. vii, 213. \$4.50.
- Educational Psychology and Children.* By K. Lovell. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. xx, 272. \$6.00.
- Physiology.* By Jessie Helen Haag and M. Vere DeVault. Austin, Texas: The Steek Company, 1959. Pp. 47. \$1.75.
- The Early Inhabitants of the Americas.* By Harry Errald Stafford. New York: Vantage Press, 1959. Pp. xxvii, 492. \$6.50.
- Lenin on the Question of Nationality.* By Alfred D. Low. New York: Bookman Associates, 1959. Pp. vii, 193. \$4.00.
- Daily Life in the Time of Homer.* By Emile Mireaux. New York: The Macmillan Company. Pp. xii, 264. \$4.00.
- The Third World War. Trade and Industrial — The New Battleground.* By Harry Welton. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. xii, 330. \$6.00.
- Sources of Our Liberties.* By Perry Cooper. New York: New York University Press, 1959. Pp. xxxii, 456. \$5.00.
- Pictorial History Of Philosophy.* By Dagobert D. Runes. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. iv, 184. \$6.00.
- Introduction to Savings and Investments.* By Peter Yacyk. Folsom, Pennsylvania: Peter Yacyk Company, 1959. Pp. xi, 151. \$3.75.
- Road of Propaganda. The Semantics of Biased Communication.* By Karin Dovring. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. 158. \$4.75.
- We Are One Nation. A Blueprint for a New and Greater Canada.* By Allen Ronaghan. New York: Greenwich Book Publishers, 1959. Pp. xii, 121. \$2.75.
- Crisis of the House Divided. An Interpretation of the Issues in the Lincoln-Douglas Debates.* By Harry V. Jaffa. New York: Doubleday and Company, 1959. Pp. xx, 451. \$6.50.
- Educational Psychology and Children.* By K. Sovell. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. xx, 271. \$6.00.
- Psycho-Therapy and Society.* By W. G. Eliasberg. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. vi, 223. \$6.00.
- Automation, Cybernetics and Society.* By F. H. George. New York: Philosophical Library, 1959. Pp. xxiii, 280. \$12.00.
- Business Planning for Economic Stability.* By Henry Thomassen. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. Pp. vii, 60. \$3.00.
- Family Planning Sterility and Population Growth.* By Ronald Freedman, Pascal K. Whelpton and Arthur A. Cambell. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1959. Pp. xii, 515. \$9.50.
- Profile in Black and White.* By Howard H. Quint. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. Pp. xi, 214. \$4.50.
- Freedom of Speech by Radio and Television.* By Elmer E. Smead. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. Pp. vii, 182. \$4.50.
- The Voice of the Deaf. A biography of Edward Miner Gallaudet.* By Maxine Tull Boatner. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1959. Pp. xviii, 190. \$4.50.



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